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## SHY MEN.

INDIVIDUALS are often judged of very erroneously from their external and ordinary demeanour. Of a particular class of misjudgments I am peculiarly assured, namely, those relating to men who have the reputation of being reserved through pride. In a large proportion of such cases, it is not any form of pride which produces the reservedness, but the opposite quality of shyness. It is the defect of self-esteem, rather than an undue endowment of it, that causes the conduct complained of.

Among the persons known to me as friends and associates, I could point to a number who are usually considered as proud men, and to whom it is customary to attach the—of late much misused—epithet aristocratic; while I know, with all possible certainty, that the real cause of the conduct and demeanour which obtains them this character, is nothing else than mere timidity of face. You may meet one of these men in company, and after a little time get into easy and familiar converse with him; yet, next day, encountering him in the street, and expecting a frank recognition, will be frozen by the most distant bow. You set him down as a cold proud man, too much absorbed in self to have any sympathies with you; but the fact is, that he has a boy-like shyness, which makes the usual courtesies of life a burden to him, and he only passes you in this reserved manner because he could not address you without an embarrassment painful in itself, and which would leave him in a state of self-humiliation, doubling that pain twice over. Thus, what you deem an assumption of superiority on his part, is in reality a silent confession of the most distressing weakness.

A Scottish peer, who died a few years ago in the prime of life, was unpopular from this cause. Alike to equals and inferiors, to country neighbours and to tenants, he appeared a freezing aristocrat. But there was no absolute want of a kindly nature in this gentleman. He was only oppressed with constitutional shyness. One of our late sovereigns, spending a morning at his father's house during his youth, the children of the family were ordered to be prepared to be formally introduced to the king. When the time came, all were found duly ready for the introduction, excepting the eldest son. He—the hope of the house—had been missing all morning, and could nowhere be found. The venerable earl had the mortification of bringing his young flock under the eye of royalty without its chief ornament: the awkwardness of his apology for the absence of Lord —, may be imagined. In reality, the young nobleman had secretly left home at an early hour, for the express purpose of avoiding the dreaded ceremony; nor did he reappear till some time after the royal guest had departed. On acceding, a few years after, to his titles, and large estates and influence, his

natural shyness experienced no abatement; and it had the effect of, in a great measure, neutralising his high social and political rank. To convey an idea of the extremity of the case—he was one day driving with a friend over the estates of a neighbour, when his curricle broke down. An honest farmer, seeing the distress of the party, came up to offer the horse he was riding upon, and another from a neighbouring field, for their use. The earl's companion accepted the offer with thanks; but the noble himself stalked aside, and took up a position at a little distance. There he waited till the horse was brought to him; there he mounted it; and then he rode off, without having said a single word to the worthy man who was putting himself to inconvenience on his account. The farmer, it may be believed, was astonished; but there cannot be the shade of a doubt that this strange conduct was the consequence of mere shamefacedness, or an inability to enter upon a few graceful commonplaces, which to another man would not have cost one moment's thought or pain.

The character of a late English noble was felt to be a great puzzle, in as far as, professing the extreme of liberalism in politics, he was observed to be practically 'aristocratic' far beyond the most conservative of his compeers. It was said of him that, in his own house, the servants had instructions to avoid, as far as possible, meeting him in staircases and passages; whence it was inferred that he disliked the very sight of his humbler fellow-creatures. I know not how the case might actually be; but from others which have come under my immediate observation, I think it by no means unlikely that Lord — was only shy, not proud. He was perhaps one of those to whom greetings are intolerable, and from whom a 'Good morning' is wrung like gold from a miser. The great mass of the humble can hardly form an idea of the difficulties experienced, through this cause, by some of those whom they consider as men of consequence. A gentleman occupying one of the highest offices in the country, and in the enjoyment of great public respect, on account of the manner in which he discharges his important functions—a man equally sound in judgment and kindly in the affairs of private life—this gentleman, to the knowledge of the present writer, often uses efforts to pass his friends in the street without being seen by them. A colleague in office, who for half the year sits several hours every day in the same room with him, states that he had often found himself on the point of encountering — in the course of a country walk, when he had observed him deliberately quit the footpath, and cross to the opposite side of the road, where he would stand looking over a hedge, affecting to take an interest in the landscape, or some object near or remote, until he thought his friend would be past, when he would quietly return to the footpath and resume his walk.

thus accomplishing what?—nothing but the avoidance of a kindly greeting with his colleague and friend! Such a fact will to many appear incredible; but its value consists in its strict truth, and its serving to illustrate a disposition of mind which, though hitherto little noticed, is only a too painful reality.

Shy men are generally persons of a diffident and amiable character—often possessed of a fine taste and nice moral feelings. They shrink from society and from individual rencontres, very much because of a certain overdelicacy of nature, which makes the common bustle of life unpleasant to them. Another element of their case, is a deficiency of mere animal spirits. In their ordinary moments, they lack the backing of excitement to force their minds into active and healthy play. Laxly screwed, the strings refuse to twang, and the men start back, not from the sound themselves have made, but from the absence of all sound. A sense of the dull unwholesome state of their minds reacts upon them in producing greater embarrassment, and the more they keep out of society, the more unfitted for it do they become. Sometimes a chance plunge into life, or an impulse from the contiguity of a bustling friend, will waken up a little energy in them, and for a while they will feel the comfort of a healthy normal state of mind. But when the external stimulus has spent its force, or been removed, they sink back into their unmanly timidity, and cheat the gleam of hope which their friends had begun to entertain. Usually, these men are altogether misunderstood by the world, being thought haughty when they are in reality modest, and cold and repelling when they may perhaps be glowing with benevolence to all mankind. At the best, they are regarded as odd and incalculable persons, and find their best and noblest qualities insufficient to protect them from the neglect which must ever be the fate of men of unpopular manners, however deserving of esteem.

Wherever the persons thus characterised are liable to any kind of external influence, it were well that their case should be properly understood and treated. The tendency of the patient himself—for a patient he should be considered—is to retreat from the society which is painful to him, into still deeper obscurities, and there foster the disease which preys upon him. He should, on the contrary, be tempted by all fair means into the bustle of the world, and induced, if possible, to take an interest in its affairs. Even a liking for its frivolities might, in such a case, be redemption from worse evil. When friends have any influence in proposed matrimonial arrangements, they should seek to unite the victim of shyness to a person of cheerful social nature, instead of to one who, while deemed perhaps more solid, might be apt, by less gay and active disposition, to lead to further restraints being imposed. In children, the incipient manifestations of the malady might be met by the encouragement of active sports and social habits. Above all, it is important that the victim be not left to himself, or thrown into the hands of persons of sombre temper. Disheartening views of individual merits, and of human nature generally, must also be deeply injurious.

The facts here brought forward ought to warn us against rash-judging from external appearances. The heart of man is a thing of infinite contrarities; and often where we think ourselves surest of the ground on which we are forming an estimate, we are at the remotest point from the truth. Let us make a rule of pausing when we are asked to condemn a man for his pride, whether as an incidental demonstration or a habitual characteristic. Where we think there is disdain, there is perhaps only a pitiable embarrassment, arising from natural and irresistible awkwardness. Nor may we even be sure, where we see a somewhat forward or over-confident manner, that we are not contemplating the effects of this same folly, for it is natural to assume one vicious manner in order to escape the tendency to

another, and a decisiveness, however constrained, may seem to the victim a blessed exchange from the pain of a habitual vacillation.

## MR LYELL ON THE GEOLOGY OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE reader must not expect from this title any lengthened disquisition on the geology of the American continent, but merely a passing notice of some of the more interesting facts adverted to by Mr Lyell, in his recent travels through the United States, Canada, and Nova Scotia.

1. *Falls of Niagara.*—These celebrated falls were first seen by the tourist when about three miles distant. It was a lovely morning in August, the sun was shining full upon them—no building in view—nothing but the green wood, the falling water, and the white foam. 'At that moment they appeared to me more beautiful and less grand; but after several days, when I had enjoyed a nearer view of the two cataracts, had listened to their thundering sound, and gazed on them for hours from above and below, and had watched the river foaming over the rapids, then plunging headlong into the dark pool, and when I had explored the delightful island which divides the falls, where the solitude of the ancient forest is still unbroken, I at last learned by degrees to comprehend the wonders of the scene, and to feel its full magnificence.' This is ever the case with the magnificent and sublime; the mind, habituated to ordinary things, fails at first to form a proper estimate of the object it contemplates, but gradually enlarges with the contemplation, partaking of the attributes by which it is surrounded. Leaving this matter, however, to the metaphysician, let us follow the geologist in his description and estimate of the stupendous cataract.

As is known to every reader, the falls of Niagara are situated between Lakes Erie and Ontario—the last of those great fresh-water seas so characteristic of Upper Canada. The distance between the two lakes is about twenty-nine miles, and the difference of level 330 feet. As the river issues from Lake Erie, 'it resembles a prolongation of the tranquil lake, being interspersed with low wooded islands. This lake-like scenery continues for about fifteen miles, during which the fall of the river scarcely exceeds as many feet; but on reaching the rapids, it descends over a limestone bed about fifty feet in less than a mile, and is then thrown down about 165 feet perpendicularly at the falls. The largest of these, called the Horse-shoe fall, is 1800 feet, or more than a third of a mile broad, the island in the midst being somewhat less in width, and the American fall about 600 feet wide. The deep narrow chasm below the great cataract is from 200 to 400 yards wide, and 300 feet deep; and here in seven miles the river descends 100 feet, at the end of which it emerges from the gorge into the open and flat country, so nearly on a level with Lake Ontario that there is only a fall of about four feet in the seven additional miles which intervene between Queenston and the lake. The great ravine is winding, and at some points the boundary cliffs are undermined on one side by the impetuous stream; but there is usually a talus at the base of the precipice, supporting a very ornamental fringe of trees. It has long been the popular belief, from a mere cursory inspection of this district, that the Niagara once flowed in a shallow valley across the whole platform, from the present site of the falls to the Queenston heights, where it is supposed the cataract was first situated, and that the river has been slowly eating its way backwards through the rocks for a distance of seven miles. According to this hypothesis, the falls must have had originally nearly twice their present height, and must have been always diminishing in grandeur from age to age, as they will continue to do in future so long as the retrograde movement is prolonged. It becomes, therefore, a matter of no small curiosity and interest to inquire at what rate the work of excavation is now going on, and thus to obtain a measure for calculating how many thousands of years or centuries have been required to hollow out the chasm already excavated.'

Unfortunately for such an estimate, our data are very incomplete, the earliest authentic notice of the falls being that of Father Hennepin in 1678. 'As to the waters of Italy and Swedeland,' says the worthy missionary, 'they are but sorry patterns of it: this wonderful downfall is compounded of two great falls, with an isle in the middle, and there is another cascade less than the other two, which falls from east to west.' By 1751, when Kalm, the Swedish botanist, visited the district, the lesser cascade had vanished in consequence of the demolition of the projecting ledge by which it was occasioned. In 1818 and 1828 there were extensive falls of the undermined limestone, which are said to have shaken the adjacent country like an earthquake. Since 1815 the settlers have noticed an indentation of the American fall to the extent of forty feet, at the same time that the Horse-shoe fall has been altered, so as less to deserve that name. Goat Island, which divides the falls, has also suffered degradation to the extent of several acres within the last four or five years. All this, though scanty information, evinces a gradual recession of the falls, and points to a time when they shall approach the shores of Lake Erie, and convert its expanse into a dry and fertile plain. When this may happen is altogether matter of conjecture. Mr Bakewell estimates the recession during the present century at three feet per year, while Mr Lyell thinks one foot a more probable estimate. At the latter rate, it would have required 35,000 years to excavate the gorge between Queenston and the falls, and will take more than double that period to recede to Lake Erie. It must be borne in mind, however, that the recession depends upon the nature of the rocks to be worn down, on the height of the fall, and other contingencies. At present the ledge over which it passes is limestone resting on soft shales, and as the latter are washed away by the water the former is undermined and falls down; a new undermining soon takes place, a fresh fall occurs, and thus the process of decay, though slow, is perpetual. By and by the rocks to be cut through will be sandstones of a softer texture; and though the fall will be diminished in height, the wasting effects of the cataract may be equally or even more rapid.

Be this as it may, it must have required a long series of ages to hollow out the chasm between the falls and Queenston; and if we knew the rate of erosion, Niagara would form, as it were, a great natural chronometer. And though it proved to us the lapse of many thousand years, yet is its action altogether recent compared with the events exhibited by the geology of the district. The surface is covered with shells and gravel more modern than the clays of the London basin, and which were deposited ere yet Niagara poured its waters over the escarpment at Queenston; these, again, are but of yesterday compared with the underlying strata through which the river now cuts its way. 'Many,' says Mr Lyell, 'have been the successive revolutions in organic life, and many the vicissitudes in the physical geography of the globe, and often has sea been converted into land and land into sea since that rock was formed. The Alps, the Pyrenees, the Himalaya, have not only begun to exist as lofty mountain chains, but the solid materials of which they are composed have been slowly elaborated beneath the sea within the stupendous interval of ages here alluded to.'

2. *Coal-fields of the United States.*—Like everything else in the American continent, the coal-fields are on an unusual and gigantic scale. That of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio, extends continuously from north-east to south-west for a distance of 720 miles, its greatest breadth being about 180 miles! Its area thus amounts to 63,000 square miles, a superficies considerably greater than the whole of England and Wales. That situated in Illinois, Indiana, and Kentucky, embraces an area of 14,000 square miles; while others, many times much larger than the largest coal-field in Britain, are found in Michigan and other parts of the union. The coal is of two kinds—bituminous, such as that found in Britain; and anthracite, or debittuminised coal, which is a natural coke deprived of its gaseous matters by subterranean pro-

cesses. This anthracite burns without smoke or flame, does not soil the fingers, is not easily broken, and has a metallic or ringing sound when struck. It is found in various degrees of purity, containing from 3 to 16, or even to 25 per cent. of inflammable matter. The most thoroughly debittuminised portions of the field, are those most intimately associated with the Alleghany mountains, thus pointing to the subterranean fires by which the bituminous materials were expelled; and it is curious to learn that as the field recedes from the mountains, it gradually becomes more and more bituminous, till it cannot be distinguished from ordinary coal. For a long time this anthracite was rejected; but science has taught its use to the Americans, to whom, for countless ages, it will be an indispensable source of wealth and comfort. In speaking of its use at Pottsville, Mr Lyell says, 'Here I was agreeably surprised to see a flourishing manufacturing town with the tall chimneys of a hundred furnaces, burning night and day, yet quite free from smoke. Leaving this clear atmosphere, and going down into one of the mines, it was a no less pleasing novelty to find we could handle the coal without soiling our fingers. The slow combustion of anthracite can be overcome by a strong current of air, not only in large furnaces, but by aid of a blower in the fireplaces of private dwellings; and its drying effect on the air of a room may be counteracted by the evaporation of water. As managed by the Americans, I have no hesitation in preferring its use, in spite of the occasional stove-like heat produced by it, to that of bituminous coal in London, coupled with the penalty of living constantly in a dark atmosphere of smoke, which destroys our furniture, dress, and gardens, blackens our public buildings, and renders cleanliness impossible.'

Again, the coal-fields of America are as remarkable for the ease with which they can be worked, as for their vast extent and excellent qualities. There are no deep shafts requiring eight or ten years of expensive labour, no gigantic engines for drainage, no complicated machinery for ventilation, no precautions necessary against explosions, for such disasters are totally unknown. 'I was truly surprised,' says our authority, 'now that I had entered the hydrographical basin of the Ohio, at beholding the richness of the seams of coal which appear everywhere on the flanks of the hills and at the bottoms of the valleys, and which are accessible in a degree I never witnessed elsewhere. The time has not yet arrived, the soil being still densely covered with the primeval forest, and manufacturing industry in its infancy, when the full value of this inexhaustible supply of cheap fuel can be appreciated; but the resources which it will one day afford to a region capable, by its agricultural produce alone, of supporting a large population, are truly magnificent. In order to estimate the natural advantages of such a region, we must reflect how three great navigable rivers—the Monongahela, Alleghany, and Ohio—intersect it, and lay open on their banks the level seams of coal. I found at Brownsville a bed ten feet thick of good bituminous coal, commonly called the Pittsburgh seam, breaking out in the river cliffs near the water's edge. Horizontal galleries may be driven everywhere at very slight expense, and so worked as to drain themselves, while the cars, laden with coal and attached to each other, glide down on a railway, so as to deliver their burden into barges moored to the river's bank. The same seam is seen on the right bank, and may be followed the whole way to Pittsburgh, fifty miles distant. As it is nearly horizontal, while the river descends it crops out, at a continually increasing but never at an inconvenient height above the Monongahela. Both above and below the seam are others of workable dimensions, and almost every proprietor can open a coal-pit on his own land. The stratification being very regular, they may calculate with precision the depth at which the coal may be won. So great, indeed, are the facilities of procuring this excellent fuel, that already it is found profitable to convey it in flat-bottomed boats for the use of steam-ships at New Orleans, 1100 miles distant, in spite of the dense forests bordering the intermediate river plains, where timber may be obtained at the cost of felling it.' One



cannot read this account of these coal-fields without speculating on the future condition of North America, and associating therewith all that is great, and powerful, and enlightened. Without her mineral resources, Britain never could have been what she now is; and America has started as it were full-grown into life with resources to which those of our island can hardly be compared. The mineral wealth of Britain has already accomplished wonders, and will bring about still more stupendous results; but America, when Britain's last pound of coal shall have been consumed, will only be emerging into meridian glory.

3. *Natural gas-light.*—Many of our readers may be aware that the carburetted hydrogen which issues from some of the north of England mines, as, for example, that of Wallsend, has been collected in gasometers, and used for the purposes of illumination. In no case, however, has it been of much importance, beyond the mere illustration of the fact, that such an illumination could be effected. Not so, however, on the other side the Atlantic, as we hear from the following extracts from Mr Lyell's journal:—Sailed in a steamboat to Fredonia [on Lake Erie], a town of 1200 inhabitants, with neat white houses, and six churches. The streets are lighted up with natural gas, which bubbles out of the ground, and is received into a gasometer, which I visited. This gas consists of carburetted hydrogen, and issues from a black bituminous slate. The lighthouse-keeper at Fredonia told me, that, near the shore, at a considerable distance from the gasometer, he bored a hole through this black slate, and the gas soon collected in sufficient quantity to explode when ignited.

4. *Great Dismal Swamp.*—Among the recent and superficial formations of America, there is none more interesting than those swamps or morasses which occur in the low flat regions of the Carolinas and Florida. The largest of these lies between the towns of Norfolk and Weldon, in North Carolina, and is traversed in part by a railway, supported on piles. 'It bears,' says Mr Lyell, 'the appropriate and very expressive name of the "Great Dismal," and is no less than forty miles in length from north to south, and twenty-five miles in its greatest width from east to west, the northern half being situated in Virginia, the southern in North Carolina. I observed that the water was obviously in motion in several places, and the morass has somewhat the appearance of a broad inundated river-plain, covered with all kinds of aquatic trees and shrubs, the soil being as black as in a peat-bog. The accumulation of vegetable matter going on here in a hot climate, over so vast an area, is a subject of such high geological interest, that I shall relate what I learnt of this singular morass.

'It is one enormous quagmire, soft and muddy, except where the surface is rendered partially firm by a covering of vegetables and their matted roots; yet, strange to say, instead of being lower than the level of the surrounding country, it is actually higher than nearly all the firm and dry land which encompasses it, and, to make the anomaly complete, in spite of its semi-fluid character it is higher in the interior than towards its margin. The soil of the swamp is formed of vegetable matter, usually without any admixture of earthy particles. We have here, in fact, a deposit of peat from ten to fifteen feet in thickness, in a latitude where, owing to the heat of the sun and length of the summer, no peat-mosses like those of Europe would be looked for under ordinary circumstances.' In northern latitudes, where the climate is damp and the summer short and cool, the growth of one season does not rot away before the growth of the next has risen above it; and the more so that the situation is wet and boggy. The vegetation in fact is protected from decay by the comparative absence of heat and the presence of water, but in Carolina the former of these causes does not operate. Mr Lyell, therefore, accounts for the formation of the 'Great Dismal' in the following manner:—There are many trees like the willow which there flourish in water. The white cedars stand firmly in the softest part of the quagmire, supported by their long tap-roots, and afford, with many other evergreens, a dark shade, under which a

multitude of ferns, reeds, and shrubs, from nine to eighteen feet high, and a thick carpet of mosses, four or five inches high, spring up and are protected from the rays of the sun. When these are most powerful, the large cedar (*Cupressus disticha*) and many other deciduous trees are in full leaf. The black soil formed beneath this shade, to which the mosses and the leaves make annual additions, does not perfectly resemble the peat of Europe, most of the plants being so decayed as to leave little more than soft black mud, without any traces of organisation. The evaporation continually going on in the wet spongy soil during summer cools the air, and generates a temperature resembling that of a more northern climate, or a region more elevated above the level of the sea.'

Though the swamp has been described as highest towards the middle, there is a lake seven miles long and five broad in its centre, but of no great depth. Much timber has been cut down and carried out from the morass by means of canals, which are perfectly straight for long distances, with the trees on each side arching over and almost joining their branches. There are also numerous trunks of large and tall trees buried in the mire, which, being kept wet, do not decompose, but yield the finest and most durable planks. The animals chiefly found inhabiting the 'Dismal' are bears, wild cats, and occasionally a solitary wolf; but otherwise the region is as lifeless and gloomy as can be imagined. Mr Lyell regards this swamp as a fine illustration of the mode in which coal has been formed, and argues that if the district were submerged beneath the ocean so as to receive a covering of sand or mud, that the whole vegetable mass would be converted into a modern coal-seam.

Such are a few random gleanings from a work whose pages, whether they relate to the geology, statistics, or people of the districts through which the author travelled, are replete with sound and attractive information.

## POSITION AND APPEARANCE.

BY CAMILLA TOULMIN.

It is certainly one of the peculiarities of the present day, that people are more inclined to think for themselves, to examine time-established customs and opinions, and, if they find them mischievous or false, to break from their trammels, than they were even twenty years ago. Indeed there are few who walk through the world, endeavouring to keep their eyes open, and notice what is going on around them, who have not an 'experience' of one sort or another to oppose to some erroneous but current opinion. *Après* of one such conviction is the following sketch from life.

'Sweet are the uses of adversity.' That, courteous reader, is not a proverb against which I would break a lance or wear down a goose-quill. No; so wrote one of old, whose pearls of wisdom Time cannot corrode; nor in them can the world's accumulated knowledge and developed reason find speck or flaw. The adversity to which Shakespeare alluded, was the change from a high and proud position to one of humble obscurity; from a life of ease and luxury to a precarious existence, dependent on toil and daily exertion, and not without dangers and difficulties. Such changes must have been frequent at all times, yet are they most so in an age like the present. In a country whose crowded population are striving and wrestling for place and precedence, some must be continually losing ground. Now, the opinion with which I do quarrel, is that which shapes itself into the words I have often heard—'Had enough to be poor, but still worse to seem poor.' Think of the contrariety of human nature; this is the very thing the miser, stooping beneath the weight of his money-bags, strives to seem. 'Ah,' exclaims some struggling stickler for the value of appearances—'ah, he can afford to seem poor!'

Excuse me, my dear friend; no man is so rich in virtues as to be able to afford a falsehood; and none can be made happy or respectable by holding a false position. And for the rich to feign poverty, is as false a thing as for the poor to cheat the world by hollow appearances. The fable of the dog and the shadow has a meaning the most profound. I believe that more than one-half of the amount of human miseries arises from the struggle to maintain the appearance of things, instead of to acquire the realities. And, after all, how shallow they are! The people who keep but one eye open can see through them. Folks who struggle to maintain a position higher in a worldly sense than that to which they are entitled, seem to have chosen a footing slippery and insecure as thin ice. What foundation can they trust on which to build? What purchase have they from which to spring or climb higher? I think I could illustrate this truth by many facts which I have observed. I will try to do so by recalling two or three odd chapters of biography.

A few years ago—so few, that the youthful actors of that day are only now entering on the summer of life—I chanced to be intimately acquainted with two families, the heads of which were connected by the close band of commercial partnership. They had been brought up in ease and luxury, or, as the world afterwards said, extravagantly; for the day of reverses came, and either from unfortunate speculations, or some of the thousand causes by which we are told the intricate wheels of business may be clogged, the firm of Freeman and Sanders, which had stood for two generations in proud security and unblemished repute, bent its head to the dust in acknowledged bankruptcy. The senior partner, Mr Freeman, died, it was said, of grief and shame, within three months from the period of this catastrophe; and thus were his children and their mother deprived of a stay and protector in the very hour of their extremest need. The scene and circumstances were those, alas! but too common in real life, but over which pride drops so thick a veil, that strangers seldom penetrate behind it—a scene and circumstances so gloomy of aspect, that the writer of fiction shrinks from making the world familiar with their details, while the moralist sighs and doubts how it were wisest to deal with them.

No one seemed to have observed that there was anything remarkable about the eldest daughter, Mary Freeman, who was then about nineteen years of age. Neither tall nor short, nor handsome nor plain; neither particularly gay, nor, on the other hand, given to melancholy, the slanderers of women who believe in Pope would have been likely enough to pronounce her one with 'no character at all.' If anything had been noticed of her, it was, that she was quiet and lady-like, and a great reader. We shall see what had been the moulding of quiet reflection and judicious reading, added to the early impressions made by a truthful and high-minded mother. I was in the house in those sad hours when the dead lay unburied, and the distressing details consequent on death pressed heavily on the living, and seemed, as they always do, to clash rudely and profanely on their aching hearts. Here, too, and at this hour, cowered Poverty in one of its darkest forms. The widow, blinded with heart-wrung tears, lay exhausted in a room apart. On Mary devolved all cares, all responsibility. She knew that the very furniture of the house belonged to her father's creditors; and she knew that the means in her mother's hands would not suffice a month for the family's support. She was very pale, and a dark circle round the eyes showed that she had wept bitterly; but she was calm now, and gave her orders with distinctness and composure. The draper had brought mourning habiliments for her selection.

'This is too good,' said Mary quietly, putting on one side some articles he had displayed before her. The tradesman looked surprised, and said something about seldom supplying ladies with goods inferior to those.

'We cannot afford so high a price,' continued Mary in a

manner unmistakeably different from the affectation with which the wealthy sometimes talk of their means; and she chose the very cheapest articles which would combine durability with economy. A peculiar expression passed over the draper's face. If I read it aright, it half arose from pity for the fallen family, and half from a sudden conviction that at any rate he should be paid immediately or certainly for his goods, having doubtless remarked that dangerous customers always endeavour—to keep up appearances. Mary Freeman had acted from her own instinctive love of truth and justice: she knew not then that she had already made her first stand against the despot Poverty—combated with him hand to hand. Boldly to say, 'I cannot afford,' is the true way to keep him at bay.

Mary Freeman appeared to possess nothing of what is called worldly wisdom; and yet her position was one which worldly people would have said required a great deal of worldly policy to guide her; and she really had only great simplicity of character, the power of distinguishing between right and wrong, and the habit of always and promptly deciding on the former line of conduct. So completely had the mother been spirit-crushed by adverse fortune, that the management of affairs was silently, yet as a matter of course, ceded to Mary. She was well educated and accomplished, and every way competent to be an instructress; her sister, two years her junior, was a fine musician, and she calculated that if both could obtain pupils, they should be able to support their mother, certainly to maintain her above want, though not to procure her the luxuries to which she had been accustomed. A cheap lodging was taken, and the creditors, admiring the energy and right-mindedness the young girl was displaying, permitted her to remove, before the sale, sufficient necessaries to furnish their new abode. A situation of a very humble class offered for her young brother. 'Take it, Harry,' she advised; 'you cannot afford to remain idle; anything is better than that. If they find you attentive, and superior to this occupation, your employers will perhaps promote you to something better—at any rate take it, until something more advantageous appears.' And while these young people are buffeting the world bravely and wisely, let us turn to the Sanders family, who, seeking to retrieve their fortunes, were pursuing a very opposite course.

'We must keep up appearances,' was the text from which a silly woman was perpetually preaching; and when her husband had the weakness to yield to her persuasions, it was not to be expected that her sons and daughters should see the error and folly of their course. Soon after the failure, Mr Sanders had obtained a situation of from two to three hundred a-year, as superior clerk in a mercantile house. Properly managed, such an income, however inferior to that which they had formerly spent, might have supported his wife and the two young children in real respectability and independence; and had the elder son and daughter, who were about the ages of Mary and Fanny Freeman, been taught to contribute to the general stock, the inconveniences of which, to their intimate friends, they so bitterly complained, would surely have been removed. But no: a really excellent situation might have been procured for George Sanders; but, alas! it was in a retail establishment, and his mother would not listen to such a falling off from the dignity of the family. 'It would be the ruin of him,' she exclaimed: 'how could he show himself in genteel society when it was known that he might be seen serving behind a counter? He could not escort his sister to evening parties if he were chained to business three nights a week; and if Clara did not "go into society," what, poor girl, would become of her? It was not giving her a chance.' The chance was, of course, that of 'making a good match,' as the phrase goes. Poor Mrs Sanders! her castle-building was about as unreal as that of the girl in the old story with her basket of eggs. 'Appearances' were, with her, the brittle commodity on which fortune was to be founded.

No matter that at home there were heart-burnings and discontent; tradesmen calling for bills which there was not the money to discharge; or that, for the providing of showy luxuries, the necessities of life were curtailed; and so, in the family the petty selfishnesses of humanity were painfully brought out, as, except in the very highest natures, they always are when individual comfort is trying to trespass on. Even the bonds of affection, which alone could have held together such discordant elements, wore weaker and weaker. Instead of instructing her children to exert themselves, she taught them that, by cultivating appearances, fortune would call at their door; and certainly they waited with a patience which would have been admirable if practised in a better cause.

In the days of their equal prosperity the two families had been intimate, but their unequal adversity had brought out in such strong relief the lights and shades of their character, and their paths seemed so opposite, that, without any disagreement, calls became less frequent, till sometimes they did not meet for months together.

Five years glided away. At the end of that time Clara Sanders was still unmarried; and though at last, wearied and worn out with waiting for some unexceptionable and lucrative employment to present itself, her brother had accepted a situation, it was one infinitely inferior in point of remunerative advantages to several he had rejected; but then it was perfectly 'genteel,' and he was released from business in time to join in the fashionable promenades, and had no veto put upon evening parties. Bred up in a bad school, he did not perceive that his 'position' was one that to a high and upright mind would have appeared positively degrading. His paltry salary scarcely found him in pocket-money and cigars, while for his real maintenance the strong able-bodied man of twenty-two was indebted to an impoverished and hard-working father; nay, worse, to a parent involved in debt, and surrounded with difficulties. To my thinking, the world in this nineteenth century knows no such martyrs as those who are struggling to uphold themselves in a false position.

It was a warm evening, just at that season of the year when spring is melting into summer, when London is full of the 'fashionable world,' and when, consequently, the descending grades of society, following their example, revel also in gaiety and visiting. A party was projected to take place in the showy but really wretched home of the Sanderses; and little could the invited guests suspect the crooked plans—laughable, if they were not most melancholy—to which their hosts must have recourse ere they could receive them; the curious stratagems, born of the inventive mother, Necessity, by which they must keep the bubble 'appearances' from bursting. At the present moment, how to obtain five pounds to purchase articles for which they could not obtain credit, was the question in agitation between mother and daughter. There was a loud rat-tat at the door—surely street-door knockers are nowhere so noisy as in London—and presently Mr George entered the room, drawing off a pair of lemon-coloured gloves, the cost of which might have given them all a better dinner than they had tasted that day.

'Just met Harry Freeman,' he exclaimed, throwing himself into the nearest chair; and finding that he received no answer to this important piece of information, he continued, 'What luck some people have to be sure!'

'Has he been in luck's way, then?' inquired Mrs Sanders.

'Only that he has been pushed up over the heads of clerks of a dozen years' standing, and made foreign correspondent in —'s house.'

'I should think his sisters would give up teaching now,' said Clara, with an emphasis on the last word.

'I don't believe it—they are such screws,' replied her brother. 'I declare I would not have worn the coat he had on.'

'What!—shabby?'

'No, not shabby; but such a cut! East of Temple Bar all over.'

There was a slight whispering between mother and daughter.

'If you do that,' said Mrs Sanders, 'you must invite them.'

'He will be too busy to come,' replied Clara; 'and they will be sure to wear white muslin; girls always look nice in that.'

'George and you might walk there this evening; it would be better than writing.'

'I'll leave you at the door, and call for you in half an hour,' said he, as they walked along; for he had learned that her mission was not solely to invite their old friends to join the evening party, and his cowardly vanity shrunk from being present when the other solicitation was made.

Clara found Mary and her brother studiously engaged with a German master, and Fanny and Mrs Freeman busily plying the needle. She must seek a private audience for her more important request; but she felt that 'she was giving her friends a little consequence,' by inviting them to the party before the stranger.

'We are particularly engaged on Wednesday,' said Mary; 'very particularly,' she added, with a smile, which somehow or other brought a blush to the cheeks of her sister Fanny.

Clara expressed in courteous phrase all due regrets that they should not have the pleasure of seeing them, with all the et ceteras usual on such occasions; and on the first opportunity, asked to speak to her in private for five minutes. It was not an agreeable thing to ask the loan of five pounds, and she put it off yet another moment, by dwelling once more on the disappointment Mrs Sanders would feel at not seeing her young friends.

'When I tell you,' said Mary Freeman, now released from all restraint, 'that our dear Fanny is going to be married on Thursday morning, you will see that it is not likely we should go to a party the night before. Though indeed we seldom go into anything like gaiety; you know we cannot afford finery and coach-hire.'

In her astonishment Clara could not help ejaculating, 'That chit Fanny!'

'Nay, though younger than we are,' said Mary, 'she is two-and-twenty.'

'Is it a good match?' asked Clara.

'Excellent, I think,' replied Mary, again smiling, and now at her friend's use of that vulgar hackneyed phrase, 'inasmuch as her intended is a gentleman of the highest character. Their attachment I believe to be a most warm and sincere one; and though not absolutely rich, he can surround her with all the comforts of life. I assure you I rejoice that she did not accept either of the other offers she received, although they were what the world calls better ones.'

'Other offers!—and yet you never go out!' exclaimed Clara with undisguised astonishment.

'I sometimes think they must have been because we never put ourselves in the way of seeking admirers.'

Clara was not inclined to ask what Mary meant by using the plural 'we,' and so she proceeded to seek the loan.

'I will lend it you with pleasure,' replied the kind-hearted girl, 'if you will promise to return it to me by the first of next month. It is part of what I have put away to pay for our lessons in German and Spanish, and the quarter will be due then. I do not think Harry will need to go on any longer, for he has a talent for acquiring languages, and he has fagged very hard for the last three years. I am not so quick, and shall take lessons till Christmas, if I can possibly afford it.'

The promise was given; ay, and I am afraid without even the positive intention of fulfilling it. For those who are slaves to 'appearances' live only in the present, and regard the future but little.

The first of the month arrived—the second—the third—and no communication from the Sanderses. On the fourth came a letter full of excuses and apologies.



Mary had discrimination enough to read through such phrases the simple truth—that they had not the money. She was too sorry for them to feel angry, though the disappointment to herself was a serious one. She determined to break off her lessons for a few weeks, until she could replace the sum she had generously lent and—lost. Those who know what it is to study ardently, and with a specific object in view, will believe how vexatious such an interruption was. How the party 'went off,' or what further stratagems the Sanders family resorted to during the ensuing months, there is no record to show. Ashamed of seeing the friend she had wronged, Clara took no further notice of the broken promise, putting off perhaps from time to time the fulfilment of some vague intention she might have formed of calling or writing again. But the crisis was coming; the bubble was bursting; appearances could be kept up no longer. One of the many penalties attending those who struggle to maintain a false position is, that they seldom or never draw round them friends able or willing to assist them in the dark hour of adversity. The really high-minded and generous, who would respect honest poverty, and hold out a helping hand to it in the time of need, recoil from the mockeries of life and all false people; instinctively they shun them, and so know them not. Of all their butterfly associates, the Sanderses had not one of whom to seek counsel or aid in the hour of their second and deeper fall. Deeper, indeed; for now was disgrace. The world saw that the ruin came from personal extravagance; and creditors cheated, as they believed themselves to have been, intentionally, were different to deal with from the sufferers by mercantile failure. When Clara next called on Mary Freeman, it was with humbled mien and tearful eyes, not to pay the borrowed pounds, but to seek the further loan of—a few shillings. Fortune had smiled upon the orphans. With Harry's increased salary, he had insisted that Mary should confine her earnings to the defraying her own personal expenses—thus she had already saved money.

'Say no more about the old debt, my dear Clara,' she exclaimed: 'I long ago looked upon it as a gift; that is, if you would accept it from an old friend. I should have written to tell you so, but I feared to hurt your feelings.' And she slipped another five-pound note into her hand, to be returned 'whenever she grew rich.'

And this was the friend whom for years she had slighted!—whom her mother had hesitated to invite to the house, lest she should appear ill dressed! The good that was in her nature seemed to rise above the evil-teaching by which it had been crushed, and, throwing herself on her knees, she buried her face in Mary's lap, and burst into a passionate flood of tears.

'My poor girl,' said Mary, herself somewhat overcome by the interview, 'I do feel for you. I know what poverty is—bitter and hard to bear. Yet it is a foe that, to be conquered, must be bravely met. You are still young—'

'Five-and-twenty!' murmured Clara.

'Well, so am I.'

'But you have overcome your troubles; mine are just beginning.'

'I have worked very hard for six years, it is true, and I have had my reward.'

'I—I,' exclaimed the wretched Clara, wringing her hands, 'feel older—much older than I am. I have seen so much misery, so much falsity; all the energy of my youth seems gone.'

'Some of it will come back when you set yourself resolutely to some suitable occupation. Independence is so delightful a feeling, and the money one earns so very sweet, so much more *one's own* than any other can be. No one ever forgets his or her first earnings, and you have this pleasant emotion still to know!'

Mary Freeman tried to cheer her suffering friend; and in part she succeeded. She persuaded her to seek independence resolutely and perseveringly, and, after

a while, she did find a sweet return for her exertions. But it was quite true that the rich strong energies of youth had been frittered away in folly and the pursuit of mockeries and unreal vanities.

Most melancholy is it to witness the misfortunes of those who suffer for the faults of their parents; yet rarely is this denunciation of Scripture avoided. In few things, indeed, are cause and effect so easily traced. And surely, of all injuries inflicted on the young, none is so fatal as evil training. Clara's young brother and sister, mere children still, have, to my thinking, a better chance of prosperity than she had. Plunged as they are into absolute and acknowledged poverty, at least they escape the misery of a 'false position': they have a firm footing, from which let us hope that, by some honest means, they may rise to comfort and independence. As for George, selfish and idle habits, it is true, had taken deep root in his nature; yet he was young, and in those few words lies a world of hope. The thin ice of false appearances had broken beneath him, and for that, were he already wise, he would have been most thankful, yet, though for the time he were plunged into very troubled waters. They could not have stranded him on a more insecure resting-place. I know not his present lot.

Another four years passed away, bringing myriads of changes—some sudden, some gradual—to many a hearth and home. During this period Mrs Freeman, who had been for many years in delicate health, was taken from her children; but, saving this bereavement, her family had prospered beyond the brightest paintings of hope. The affection between Mary and her brother was something beautiful to contemplate. His life had been too busy to afford him much time to cultivate acquaintances; thus his warm affections were concentrated on a few very dear friends, and his sisters, especially Mary, to whom he looked up with no small degree of reverence as well as love. The most perfect confidence had always subsisted between them; yet now, for the first time, Mary suspected that Harry hid some secret from her. The mystery, whatever it might be, seemed not of a disagreeable kind; yet that there was a mystery, she felt certain, else why so many letters—some of them, too, looking like tradesmen's bills—about which he said not a word, though he generally looked rather pleased than otherwise when he opened them? True, he had told her an acquaintance of his was furnishing a house, and had consulted him a good deal about it; and he, appealing to Mary's taste, as superior to that of two gentlemen, insisted on her deciding on several matters—choosing paper for a drawing-room, and many such et cetera. It was rather odd, she thought; but Mary retained the simplicity of character inseparable from a truthful nature, and nothing doubted.

One day Harry Freeman proposed an excursion some half-dozen miles from town, to visit the residence of this mysterious friend. It was a beautiful day in spring, when everything in nature seems to gladden the heart; and, exhilarated by the ride, Mary was in high spirits when they drove up to the gates of a substantial villa, beautifully situated on the rise of a hill which commanded a fine view—the house being surrounded with extensive and highly-cultivated pleasure-grounds. When they entered the dwelling, Mary found that everything corresponded with the outward appearance of elegance. One room, especially, seemed to charm her—a sort of breakfast-parlour or morning-room, in which books and musical instruments were arranged, and which, leading into a conservatory, seemed to hint that the intended occupier had a feminine passion for flowers.

'I suppose this beautiful house, this exquisite room, are intended for some young and interesting bride?' exclaimed Mary.

'No, my dear sister, not so,' replied Harry. 'Sit down on this sofa beside me, and I will give you a brief history of the owner of this dwelling. There was a poor boy thrown adrift on the world without

friends, without money. He remembers to this day that he felt himself as if cast on an ocean without anchor, or compass, or rudder. There was no settled purpose in his young heart, which was filled with bitter recollections of indulgences no more to be tasted, and overgrown with wrong notions and false pride of all sorts. To the beautiful example of one dear relative, and to words which, on a day of most intense agony, he heard from her young lips as a message from on high, he feels that, under Heaven, he owes a degree of worldly prosperity almost unparalleled. It is for this sweet relative and himself,' he added smiling, 'if she will let him share her home, that he has prepared this abode. Do you not think he does right to devote his income to her comfort, her enjoyment?'

'Quite right,' replied the unsuspecting Mary: 'but, Harry, who are they? I am sure I should like to know them.'

'Mary, murmured he, with much tenderness, and drawing her yet nearer to him, 'I was the poor boy, and you the sweet sister, whose wise example and brave words have made me what I am. Nay, do not start and look so wildly; indeed I can afford this home; ay, and the saddle-horse in the stable, and half a hundred things I have yet to show you. I am partner in the house where I served—I hope faithfully. That I should become so, was almost the last wish expressed by Mr——, the head of the firm, on his deathbed.'

'I do not think it can be real,' said Mary, when at last she could speak, after gushing tears of joy had relieved her heart: 'but, Harry,' she continued, 'as if a new idea had just occurred to her, 'you may marry?'

'And so may you,' replied her brother: 'indeed I am almost selfish enough to fear you will. But,' he added, 'as again he held her in his arms and kissed her cheek, 'if I should marry you will but have another sister. I could not love a wife who did not love and reverence you!'

## OCCASIONAL NOTES.

### 'THE WEATHER AND CROPS.'

ABOUT harvest-time in each year, the newspapers throughout this empire teem with paragraphs headed as above. The people of Great Britain, proverbial as they are for incessantly talking about the state of the atmosphere, are more anxious and loquacious about it in August and September than at other seasons. The smallest change creates a great excitement. A dull or wet day produces long faces and fearful forebodings: the farmer expresses terrible apprehensions, and the stock-jobber 'speculates for a fall;' nor does he speculate in vain; for a succession of hazy or sunless days is certain to depreciate government securities. Politicians look grave; wonder, if there should happen to be a short crop, how the country is to get on till next year; and tremble lest a rise of a halfpenny in the loaf should cause a rising of the disaffected in what used to be called the 'disturbed districts.' Such are the gloomy perspectives conjured up in this country by one or two wet autumn days. That these exaggerated fears are engendered by these very small causes, only shows our immunity from great calamities. The worst which is ever apprehended in Great Britain, is a crop below the average; a total failure, such as takes place in other countries, is unheard of; and we would just remind the apprehensive of what frequently takes place abroad, that they may derive consolation from the contrast.

Perhaps the most destructive of all calamities which foreign agriculture suffers, and from which that of England is exempt, are inundations. In territories intersected by rivers which, from having their sources in extensive mountain ranges, are liable to sudden and immense accessions, the waters overflow and sweep away the next year's food of an entire province. A few seasons ago, a calamity of this nature occurred no

farther away than the south of France, when the Soane burst its banks, and submerged a vast expanse of standing corn. As we write, the French papers inform us that the harvests both of Upper and Lower Hungary have been destroyed by the violence of inundations, which lasted for eight days. Not only is all the corn swept, but whole villages have been carried away, and old and valuable woods much injured. More than a million of individuals are threatened with actual famine, in consequence of this widely-spread calamity.

If we turn to the East, we shall see that the destruction of grain about harvest-time is much more frequent. Besides drought and blighting winds, swarms of locusts frequently darken the air, and descend to eat up whole acres of grain in a night. In the more prolific districts, again, such as Egypt and some parts of Turkey, the cultivator is oppressed by a plague surer in its operations than the worst elemental disasters; namely, an oppressive system of taxation, which exacts dues great in proportion to the goodness of the crop, so as to leave the *fellah*, or agriculturist, but scarcely enough to support existence. From all these plagues the climate, situation, and political constitution of Great Britain exempt us. Yet, instead of being thankful for the superior blessings which we enjoy, we tremble at the smallest likelihood of a less than average abundance of corn, and fill our newspapers and our conversation with doleful prognostications concerning 'the weather and crops.'

### AN EXTENSIVE RAILWAY.

The longest line ever yet contemplated is one proposed to extend between St Petersburg and Odessa, a distance of 1600 miles. It will connect the Baltic with the Black Sea; but, by taking an eastward sweep, might also bring direct communication with the Caspian within its track. Commencing at St Petersburg, it will be cut southward to Novgorod and Moscow, and thence to Odessa, taking in the most important of the intervening cities. Besides the vast uninterrupted distance, the traveller will pass through a variety of climates, and will be able to accomplish the hitherto unheard-of feat of travelling from winter into summer. Supposing he get into the train at St Petersburg amidst frost and snow late in the winter, he will find himself, before he leaves the terminus at Odessa, suffering from the heats of summer!

It is not easy to foresee all the difficulties by which the formation of such a rail will be opposed. These will principally arise from the snow-storms which occur in the northern regions, and we have not heard that any scheme has been projected for clearing away such an obstruction, by means of the locomotive or otherwise, during its progress. Of mere engineering difficulties one has ceased to hear; for, after the wonders in levelling and tunnelling which have been performed in Great Britain, a railway in any part of the globe does not appear at all impracticable. The paragraph from which we copy the above information adds, that it is intended to continue the line from Odessa into Persia, through its capital Tehran to Ispahan; but whether the Caucasian range is to be tunneled, is not stated. Should the gigantic scheme be carried out, a branch from Odessa to Constantinople may be fully expected to the west, whilst another eastward through Tartary to Peking must be regarded as a no very distant probability. But the speculator who projects his railway anticipations thus far into futurity, be he ever so sanguine, cannot regard the possibility of a break-down in the Kobi desert—with no station nearer than Sou-tchou close under the great Chinese wall—without a shudder. Altogether, the Russian undertaking, with the vast branches which may be imagined in connexion with it, presents materials for a sublime prospectus; and it is almost to be regretted that the Emperor of Russia did not send his scheme into 'the market.' It would have been curious to observe how far the force of prospectus-writing would have gone.

There seems little doubt, however, that the Russians



are quite in earnest about connecting Odessa with St Petersburg.

#### INDICES—A HINT TO PUBLISHERS.

In the last number of the Quarterly Review, we find the following judicious note appended to an article on the collective edition of Lord Chesterfield's letters:—"We have a serious complaint to make of this 'Collective Edition of Chesterfield's Letters'—it has no index. It was the same with the 'Collective Edition of Walpole's Letters,' lately issued from the same establishment, and, like this, in other respects satisfactorily arranged. The publisher ought to know that, though such omissions may not be regarded by the keepers of circulating libraries, they are most annoying to people who have libraries of their own, and buy books to be bound, preserved, and consulted—not merely to be read or glanced over, like a 'standard novel,' or some sentimental spinster's *mince* or jocular captain's *hash* of history or memoirs. In every considerable printing-office there may be found some intelligent man willing and able to compile a sufficient index for such a book as this now before us, for a very moderate remuneration, at his leisure hours."

Scarcely a day passes but we suffer great inconvenience and loss of time, either from imperfectly drawn-up indices, or from the total want of them, in standard works. Every book worth reading through (except perhaps a novel), and which is deposited in a library, is virtually a book of reference; for if it did not contain passages worthy being read over again, it would hardly have been preserved; and to wade through several pages of context to find a particular piece of information, is a trial of patience which an index obviates.

The learned French bibliophile, Magré de Marolles, states that not till the middle of the sixteenth century were alphabetical indices added to printed books. 'They have ever since,' he says, 'been considered indispensable. Since the invention of printing learning has spread, and the utility of this plan is universally acknowledged. It gives to authors the means of quoting with precision, and to readers a facility of verifying their quotations at once.' A century or two ago, indices appear to have been more general accompaniments to books than at present; the *Delphin Classics*, for example, having a copious and complete index. Amongst modern works, we may mention D'Israeli's *Curiosities of Literature*, neither series of which has an index; yet the matter in these learned volumes is more useful for reference than for continuous reading; being, though highly valuable, detached and memoranda-like. We could cite a hundred similar instances, were we disposed to be tedious.

Besides the want of indices, there is another defect in many books of biography and history—the paucity of dates. The author contents himself with recording the year once, and thinks that is sufficient for a great many succeeding pages. He refers to 'this year' after perhaps a long episode or series of reflections, expecting that the reader has carried the date in his head through perhaps a couple of chapters, and gives him the trouble of referring back, to find out the place where the figures of the date are set down. Nay, he sometimes goes further in confusion, and ingrafts upon 'this year' a heap of perplexities, the unravelling of which demands some proficiency in mental arithmetic. In reference to the dateless period, he will say that so and so happened 'the year before'; or he begins an important paragraph with, 'In the year after—', which, without careful collation with the date set down a dozen pages back, gives you no clue to the chronology of the subject whatever. As, however, it may be inelegant, and create tautology, to be continually repeating the numerals in the text, we would recommend that all historical and biographical books should have the year to which the matter relates printed at the top of each page—a good old fashion, the reason for abandoning which we could never comprehend: and this brings us

to a third objection presented by a great many modern books—the utter uselessness of their running titles. Not to select real instances invidiously, we will imagine a work on 'the history of the world': if it contain a thousand pages, 'the history of the world' will appear at the head of each, and consequently be repeated some thousand and one times, for the sake, the printer will tell you, of uniformity. Were utility, however, made the more rational aim, he would substitute a word or two at the top of each page to denote the nature of its contents.

We throw out these hints to publishers and printers, assured that their adoption, simple as they are, would be highly gratifying to the patrons of literature.

#### ECONOMY OF A CLUB-HOUSE.

WHOEVER has read the article in our last number on 'Club-Life,' will be prepared to admit that the system which has engendered it is an important novelty in social economics. The interior of a modern club-house presents a set of apartments, and a plan of domestic arrangement, not to be found associated in any other sort of domicile abroad or at home. The best analogy we can think of, is that presented by the union of a nobleman's mansion with a first-rate tavern; for club-bists have at command all the elegances and luxuries of the one, with the promptitude in getting served of the other. To give our readers a correct idea of the internal arrangements of a modern club-house, it is our intention in this sketch to describe them in detail.\*

The visitor, on entering one of these palace-like edifices, finds himself in a lobby tenanted by two servants—the hall-porter, who is seated at a desk, and his assistant. It is their duty to ascertain that none have access to the club but members, whose names are inserted in a book as they enter; to receive letters, and to keep an account of the postage. For the despatch of letters, there is a letter-box, which is opened when the official carrier calls in making his collections from the regular receiving-houses. The porters are often attended by one or two lads, in pages' livery, to convey messages from inquiring strangers to such members within the club as may be required. Close to the hall is a reception-room, for the convenience of individuals wishing to see members, and this passed, a hall or vestibule presents itself. Some of these have called forth the highest skill of the architect and decorative artist. The hall of the Reform Club is, we believe, the largest. It is a quadrangle, with a piazza projecting from each wall, and supporting a gallery by massive marble pillars, the whole forming a fine specimen of the Italian style of interior architecture. The vestibule of the 'Conservative' is an example of the opposite school. On entering it from the lobby, it presents to the eye one blaze of colour and prettiness. It is a circle (broken only by the staircase and gallery) surmounted by a cupola. It is covered with designs—chiefly floral—in the most dazzling hues, but so harmoniously blended, that they have a gorgeous rather than a flaring effect. The floor is tessellated with different-coloured marbles.

Doors from the hall or vestibule open upon the various apartments on the ground-floor. First, there is a 'morning-room,' which is used for reading newspapers and writing letters. At the largest clubs, nearly all the best periodicals are taken in. Some idea of their profusion may be formed from the fact, that the Athenæum club expended, in 1844, for English and foreign newspapers

\* A description of the 'Reform' club-house will be found in the twelfth volume of our old series, page 234.

and periodicals, the sum of L.471, 2s. 6d. Stationery is supplied to an unlimited extent, not only for writing letters, but even for literary members to feed the press with 'copy,' should their inspirations visit them at the club. The morning-room is comfortably rather than elegantly furnished.

The 'coffee-room' is put to the same use as in a tavern; namely, to that very necessary one of eating and drinking. It is furnished with rows of small tables projecting from each side, with an avenue up the middle. These tables are laid for breakfasts and luncheons till four o'clock in the day, after which they are arranged for diners. A *carte de jour* (daily bill of fare) is brought to any one wishing to dine, and from it he selects what he prefers. That he may be promptly and correctly served, the following attendants remain in the coffee-room:—a butler to furnish the wine, a head-waiter and many assistants to supply the dishes (which are wound up from the kitchen by a machine called a 'lift'), and a clerk to make out the bills and keep the accounts. The process of getting and paying for a dinner at the Junior United Service Club is thus described,\* and we have reason to know it is the same in nearly every other establishment. 'Members, when intending to dine at the club, fill up a form of dinner-bill with the dishes which they may require: this bill is sent by the head-waiter in attendance to the clerk of the kitchen, who attaches the price of each dish as established by the *carte*, and adds a charge of sixpence (in some clubs a shilling), commonly known as "table money," and intended to cover the expense of bread, cheese, butter, table ale, potatoes, &c. and copies the bill into the kitchen-book. The bill is then returned to the coffee-room, where the charge for such wine as may be taken is added by the butler; and it is finally delivered to the coffee-room clerk, who adds it up, and receives the amount from the member.' An answer to the question—'What does a member pay for his dinner?' shows us the prandial economy of the club plan. From the fiscal reports of the Athenæum, it appears that the average cost of each dinner has been for many years only 2s. 9d., exclusive of wine. To people in humbler life this may seem quite enough to pay for a single meal; but it must be remembered that the two-and-ninepenny dinner is not only excellent in itself, but is served with luxurious accompaniments, which are not to be surpassed at the table of the richest nobleman. Whereas, if we compare it with the price of tavern-dinners, we shall find that the same sum would be charged for a tough beefsteak, served in a second-rate inn, by a slovenly waiter on a dirty table-cloth. Besides, a man can dine at his club for eighteenpence if he choose; and well too. Moreover, he is thought no worse of for making a habit of dining economically. The frequenter of a fashionable tavern, on the contrary, is given to understand by the inattention of the waiters and the freezing politeness of the proprietor, that his custom is not much coveted, unless he launches out into a few extravagances 'for the good of the house'; and many a poor gentleman has been made to feel his poverty bitterly, by the vulgar notion which, in former years, construed economy into meanness. Clubs have happily altered all that. In them a member is in his own house, and can be lavish or inexpensive just as he pleases, without exciting remark. He is quite independent; he dreads not the discontented looks of waiters at the smallness of his *douceurs*; and he feels no apprehension lest he should be 'expected' to take more wine than he actually wants.† This appears to have had an extensive effect in abolishing over-indulgence at table. From the accounts of three of the largest of the clubs, we ascertain that

the average quantity of wine taken at and after each dinner, supplied during some six years past, was only a half-pint. In 1844, there was expended by the 1250 members of the Athenæum only L.722, 6s. 6d. in wine and spirits. Even supposing only half the club habitually ate and drank in the house during that year, this would give but the small sum of twenty-three shillings as the club expenditure of each member throughout the year for stimulants. What a happy change in manners since the old convivial times, when our own forefathers thought nothing of drinking wine to double the above value at a single sitting!

The detached, rather than solitary mode of dining in clubs, bespeaks a tendency to destroy the sociality which is essential to maintain a genial tone in every society. To obviate this in some degree, a snug and handsomely-furnished dining-room is provided on the ground-floor. In it from six to a dozen members may dine together exactly as they would in a private family. To facilitate the arrangement of these parties, printed forms are left in the coffee-room, and as many as wish to join the 'house dinner' (as it is called) subscribe their name. The lowest number that such a meal can be provided for is six, in some clubs eight; and members having signed the list, must pay whether they dine or not. The charge for these dinners is about seven-and-sixpence per head.—On looking over a table of statistics of the various clubs,‡ we find that houses most in request for dinners are, first, the Parthenon, where, in 1841, the number supplied to its 732 members was 24,581, being at the rate of nearly thirty-four dinners each; and secondly, the 'City,' in which 600 members ate during the same year 18,515 dinners, or thirty-one and three-quarters each. The greatest number of dinners ever taken in a club during one year was served in the Junior United Service in 1839, when 29,527 were eaten. Their average cost was 2s. 3d. each, exclusive of wine.

We have seen that the ground-storey of a club-house consists of a morning, a coffee, and a dining-room, with their accessories. We will now mount the stairs to the upper apartments. Some architects attempt to make the staircase a grand and attractive object, as in the Athenæum; others try to hide it as much as possible, supposing that art is incapable of making such an object a pleasing one. The architect of the Reform Club was of this opinion; and, by keeping it out of sight, has succeeded in producing one of the grandest halls perhaps in London.

The chief apartment above-stairs is the drawing-room, in which members take their evening coffee and tea. Here the decorator and upholsterer's finest taste is generally called into requisition. In some clubs, the display of luxury and expensiveness is carried to a point which may be characterised as absurd; particularly as the drawing-room of every club is less used than any other in the house. Near to it is the library, which is fitted up with every convenience for reading, consulting maps, &c. and is attended by a resident librarian. The books are accumulated by donation, and by a sum set aside from the general funds for their purchase. The number of volumes of course varies with the age and affluence of the club. The most extensive library is, we believe, that of the Athenæum, which, in March 1844, contained 20,300 volumes. Five hundred pounds is annually expended by this club for increasing its library, exclusive of the cost of periodicals.—Near to the library is, in some houses, a card-room, in which, however, no game of pure chance is allowed; and at whist, half-guinea points are the highest stake to be played for. Breaking either of these rules is attended, on proof, with summary expulsion.

\* In 'The System of Management of the Junior United Service Club,' &c. drawn up by Mr Thomas Hatch, the secretary, and printed for the information of the members.

† The proprietors of some taverns formerly caused it to be understood that their charges for estates were not remunerative, and that gentlemen were 'expected' to take a certain quantity of wine.

\* In a manuscript on the subject kindly lent for our use by the secretary of one of the principal clubs.

† This proportion is, it will be obvious, no index to the number of diners. Some five-and-twenty per cent. of each club never dine in the house at all, but merely go occasionally to read the papers or write their letters—the family-man, for example.

sion. In the Reform Club, there is no place exclusively set apart for whist; a small supplementary drawing-room, called the 'house-dinner drawing-room,' being used. Indeed gaming, even of the most moderate kind, is discouraged as much as possible.

The third storey contains at least one billiard-room, which is attended by a marker. For cards and billiards a charge is made; as it would be very unfair to make members who do not indulge in those games participate in the extra expenses they entail.—In only twelve of the twenty-two clubs is there a smoking-room, which, we have usually remarked, is the worst-looking place in the house. This completes the description of such of the public apartments as tend to give an idea of club-life. The highest storey consists of dormitories for the resident servants. The rooms in the basement of the building, such as kitchens, larders, pantries, still-room, dressing-rooms, lavatories and baths, need merely be mentioned, to show what other conveniences are provided for the members.

Thus much of the apartments in a modern club, and their uses. We will now take a glance at the management and governance of the complicated domestic establishment.—The direction of the affairs of every club is confided to a general committee selected from the members, which numbers from thirty to forty. From three to eight of these form a quorum, and meet once a-week to regulate the financial concerns of the institution, to superintend the election of new members, to appoint tradespeople, to engage or dismiss servants, and to inquire into and redress any complaints which may be made by members. The general committee also prepares annual reports and statements of account, which are printed for the information and satisfaction of the rest of the club. As, however, all these duties could not be efficiently performed by one board, it divides itself into sub-committees for special objects. These are the 'house committee,' which has the superintendence of the household affairs; the 'wine committee,' always composed of acknowledged connoisseurs of that article, to whom its choice, and all matters respecting its cellaring and distribution at table, are confided; and the 'book committee,' for the management of the library, to which all works are submitted for approval before they can be admitted, and from which all orders for their purchase issue. Where there are billiard-rooms, amateurs of that game are selected to form a 'billiard committee.' As organ and agent of all these boards, a secretary is appointed, who also conducts the official correspondence of the club. This enumeration includes the managing direction: the minor details are carried on by servants.

The chief of these is the house-steward, to whom is intrusted the management of the domestics; the purchasing, storing, and superintending of the daily supplies of viands. He is in some clubs aided by a 'superintendent,' who has the charge of the drawing-room floor, and sees that proper supplies of stationery and newspapers are furnished to the writing and reading rooms. The butler and his assistant supply and keep accounts of the wines and spirits. The duties of the coffee-room clerk are sufficiently obvious: he sits at the top of the 'lift,' whilst the kitchen clerk's post is at the bottom. This arrangement justifies the definition of a 'lift,' given by an Irish friend, who declared it to consist of a 'wooden spout with a moveable bottom, having a clerk at each end.' The head coffee-room waiter is the lowest servant in rank who does not wear livery, which all the other male servants do. The cook of most club-houses is generally a foreigner, so accomplished in his profession, that he almost deserves the name of an artist. He has a male assistant and a number of kitchen-maids under his orders. The female servants—who never appear in the public part of the house—are superintended by a housekeeper, who has under her charge a needle-woman, a still-room maid (to make tea and coffee), and several housemaids. The number of domestics in each club varies from 56 (in the

Reform Club) to 11, the number employed in the Garrick and Naval Clubs. Most clubs subscribe, either in money or in kind (such as waste linen, &c.), to an hospital, that their servants may be received into them, in the case of accidents or prolonged ailments; but for temporary maladies, a surgeon is engaged to attend and supply medicines. The broken victuals are given to the poor, under the direction of the parish authorities.\* One feature connected with the servants' hall of the Athenæum is deserving of notice and imitation. It contains a library collected by the servants by means of small quarterly contributions out of their wages. 'The beneficial effects are,' remarks the secretary to that institution, 'that the servants will frequently stay at home and read when off duty in bad weather; and in fine weather in summer, they may be often seen reading under the trees in St James's Park.' They are very proud of their books, and several who could formerly read but imperfectly, have been stimulated to exertion by the example of the pleasure derived by others. None have an excuse for being unable to read and write, because a person in the house is employed to instruct gratuitously such as desire it.

This completes our description of the internal arrangements of a club-house; but we must not omit to show how, and at what expense, all its advantages are attainable. To be a member of a club, unimpeachable respectability, not only of station but of conduct, is essential. When an individual becomes a candidate for admission, his name and profession are legibly exhibited, and on a stated day a ballot by every member who chooses to vote, takes place. In some establishments one negative in ten, in others a single negative of the whole votes, excludes. Exclusion (called 'blackballing') is not always, however, a proof that a man is not worthy of admission; for the candidates of some clubs are very numerous. There are at present on the list of candidates for admission to the Junior United Service Club no fewer than 2000 names. In such cases there is of course a strong competition for suffrages; and as many voters have their bias in favour of friends, they will often blackball a stranger to secure the election of the candidate in whom their personal interest is strongest. Still, there is an unpleasant feeling attached to rejection, and we cannot applaud the practice of some clubs, of keeping their list of candidates and members in the coffee-room for general reference. The rejected are easily known by the date of the unfortunate event being placed against their names. We do not see the justice of thus indirectly publishing this sort of disgrace. When elected, a candidate has to pay an entrance-fee, which, in most clubs, is about twenty guineas. The Union is the highest, being £32, 11s.; and the Law the lowest, being only £5, 5s. The annual subscription is, in a majority of clubs, six guineas; in only two as low as five; and in none higher than ten guineas.

We would point out, in conclusion, that for this moderate subscription, the member may occupy a palace from nine in the morning till after midnight. He may partake of the choicest cookery and the finest wines at cost price, which are served with scrupulous cleanliness by civil servants, whom he has neither to pay nor to manage. He has access to an extensive and well-selected library, and to every paper and periodical that is worth reading. He can come when he pleases, and stay away when he pleases, without anything going wrong: he is perfectly independent, and has nobody to please but himself. 'Clubs,' remarks the experienced author of *The Original*, 'are favourable to economy of time. There is a fixed place to go to, everything

\* To check carelessness, an excellent rule is adopted in some establishments: a sum is annually allowed to cover losses by breakage (the Junior United Service set aside £50 yearly); and if articles greater in value have been destroyed during the year, the deficiency is supplied out of the wages of each servant; if, however, the contrary, the surplus is divided amongst them. We note these minute facts as hints to private housekeepers.



is served with comparative expedition, and it is not customary in general to remain long at table.'

The system having been found so beneficial amongst the higher circles of society, it might safely be recommended for imitation amongst the lower grades, in which economy—the chief advantage of the club-principle—is so much needed. We see no reason why the middle and operative classes could not have their domestic clubs, as well as the nobility and gentry.

#### NEW ZEALAND AS A COLONY.

THE number of conflicting statements which continue to be published respecting our colonies, renders it almost impossible for any one to form a satisfactory conclusion on the subject. One, a hard-working, enterprising, and prosperous settler, views everything from the sunny side of success; another, whose education and habits are utterly at variance with the sturdy duties of a back-woodsman, emigrates, loses his money, returns and denounces the country as the most wretched in creation; a third travels to visit some relations, or for amusements' sake, and then publishes his reminiscences of a month with all the confidence of a twenty years' resident; while a fourth, who has never been beyond the environs of the metropolis, indites his 'personal experiences' for the benefit of intending emigrants. Be it Canada, Australia, or New Zealand, it is all the same; book contradicts book so directly, that it would be better for a person to set out without having perused a single line, than to be perplexed and bewildered among such heterogeneous materials. Fortunately, however, there are in this, as in other cases, a few exceptions: a book does occasionally make its appearance by an honest and impartial author, whose opportunities are known to have been such as enable him to arrive at an accurate judgment. In this class we feel inclined to include a recent work on New Zealand,\* as knowing the author, and as believing him capable of estimating, with tolerable accuracy, the facts and appearances which came under his notice.

Mr Brown entertains a high opinion of the physical and mental qualities of the aborigines, considering them intelligent and manly, acute in their perceptions, and keenly given to trading and barter. He admits, no doubt, their superstitious observances, which are often repugnant to Christian morality, and their deficiency in gratitude and conscientiousness; but, on the whole, regards them as more likely to amalgamate with Europeans than any other known race of coloured people. Of their country, as a field for British emigration, he forms an equally flattering estimate. Its climate is mild and equable, its soil capable of bearing the usually cultivated crops in abundance, and though possessing no river-plains to be compared with those of America, has still a fair proportion of surface fitted for the plough. When cleared of the original copse and fern, the finest pasture springs up spontaneously; and we are told that pigs, sheep, and oxen fatten with much greater rapidity than in the most fertile counties of England. Not subjected to destructive droughts, and having no continuously wet season, it presents an open pasturage the whole year round, and thus sheep become not only heavier animals, but yield finer fleeces than they do in Australia. Though wheat, rice, maize, and potatoes flourish luxuriantly, it should be borne in mind that as yet New Zealand is better adapted for pastoral than for agricultural purposes. All kinds of stock introduced by the settlers have prospered amazingly; and bees, unknown till 1840, have thriven so well, that an export trade in honey is shortly expected. Though possessing some fine timber, both for building and ornamental uses, it is not a forest country like

North America; and though copper, manganese, tin, lead, sulphur, rock-salt, coal, and other minerals have been found in several places, yet we know too little of the country in this respect to speak with certainty on the abundance or extent of the supply. As is well known, New Zealand has many fine harbours, and would form the most eligible station for the South-Sea whale fishing, which could be prosecuted at all seasons. From its position also, it is eminently fitted to be the great mercantile emporium of the Southern Pacific. Exporting minerals, timber, its native flax, gum, bark, hides, wool, oil, &c. and taking in return our manufactures and machinery, the while that it would afford a permanent and comfortable home for our redundant population, this infant colony certainly deserves all the praise which its friends bestow, and all the attention from the British government which they so anxiously crave.

Admitting the superiority of the aborigines to other savage races, and also the eligibility of the country as a field for emigration, the first question which naturally arises is—Why have our efforts up to this period proved so unfortunate? Mr Brown answers—The infatuated procedure of the government officials. 'In the beginning of 1840, when Captain Hobson arrived in New Zealand to establish British authority, he found an extensive trade carried on between the immigrants, under the New Zealand Land Company, and the natives. The settlers, flushed with past prosperity, and enjoying still brighter hopes of the future, had pushed their enterprising spirit into every part of the country where vessels could go, or where produce of any kind could be obtained. The natives were actuated by similar feelings. To satisfy their increasing wants, they made every effort to raise additional supplies, and effected sales of land, now so eagerly sought after by the Europeans, but not less valued by the natives, not only on account of the large quantities of goods to be obtained for it, but also from their anxiety to get Europeans to settle among them for the purposes of trade—a sale of land being, in their estimation, sure to effect this object. Like the settlers, therefore, the natives were, at the period of Captain Hobson's arrival, hoping much from the future. Not merely did they anticipate increased trading advantages from the additional number of settlers to which they looked forward, but we were regarded by them as beings of a higher order. In physical power we were acknowledged to be vastly superior; they were impressed with this truth by the sight of our ships of war, and the feeling was continually kept alive by individual exhibitions of that superiority; as a single settler, by his courage and determination alone, would frequently withstand and frighten off numbers of natives bent on robbing or otherwise molesting him. However manifested, or on whatever grounds it rested, it cannot be disputed that, at the period referred to, our moral and physical power were regarded by them with the utmost respect; and it is mortifying to make the admission, that ever since that period the respect of the natives, both for our moral qualities and physical power, has been gradually weakened by our own conduct, and to such a degree as to have entirely changed the nature and objects of the very government, and even to have endangered our personal safety in the country.' Such is Mr Brown's opinion, and he proceeds to confirm it by adducing several reasons, the principal of which was the treaty of Waitangi, which he styles 'a farce,' and to which he affirms that the signatures of many of the chiefs were obtained by improper influences.

This treaty stipulates on the part of Britain for the sovereignty of the islands, and the exclusive right of buying all the land; and in effect, though not in words, at whatever price the government choose to give, and at whatever time they find it convenient to purchase. In return for this, the New Zealanders were to be admitted to all the rights and privileges of British subjects; 'in other, and in more intelligible words,' adds our author, 'the privilege of being taxed, and of living under our civil and criminal laws.' When this treaty came to be acted

\* New Zealand and its Aborigines; being an account of the aborigines, trade, and resources of the colony. By William Brown, lately a member of the legislative council of New Zealand. Smith, Elder, and Co. London. 1845.

upon, it operated against the settlers of the New Zealand Company, and others who had directly purchased land from the natives, raising questions as to the validity of their titles, and otherwise creating confusion and discontent. The natives were perfectly aware that they had in many instances parted with certain lands; but when government thus started the question of validity, the savage, intent only upon additional quantities of goods, was also but too ready not only to raise the same objections, but to deny the sales altogether. Besides this confusion, new purchases could only be made when and where the government chose, and thus sales went on slowly; fewer goods came to the natives, who began to show symptoms of dislike to the terms of the treaty—a dislike which many of the company's settlers did everything in their power to foment—representing government as the common enemy both of immigrant and native. The government and settlers being thus pitted against each other, the natives were by far too shrewd not to perceive 'the house divided against itself,' and so committed aggressions upon the colonists, without being punished as they deserved: obedience they rendered to government only in as far as presents and new purchases made it their interest to do so. Under the plea of 'protecting' the aborigines, the public functionaries exercised a rigid severity towards the settlers for aggressions against the natives, and thus impressed them with an idea of their importance; while their offences, on the other hand, were either treated with lenity or altogether overlooked. For example, 'on the frivolous pretence of a tapu having been broken, they robbed a Mr Forsaith, a settler at Kiapara, to a very large extent. The authorities on this occasion made no attempt to punish them; but, after sundry interviews with the protector, the matter was hushed up, by the natives making over to the government a tract of land (12,000 acres) by way of compensation! Considering themselves on the whole successful, the natives, within a few months afterwards (March 1842), made a predatory excursion to Wangari, and, without any pretext of injury received, robbed the settlers of a large amount of property. Government never made the slightest attempt to punish the offenders, and the settlers to this day are without any compensation for their losses.'

Such conduct produced results the very opposite of those intended; for, instead of gratitude and consideration, the New Zealanders began to treat the government and its orders with contempt, as well as to become more insulting and annoying to the immigrants. In addition to these infatuations, Mr Shortland (acting as the representative of government after Captain Hobson's decease) began to put the treaty of Waitangi into effect, not only as regarded the settlers, but as affecting the titles of the respective chiefs, who claimed certain tracts by right of conquest. This of course was indignantly resented; and when he found that he could not carry the treaty into effect with the natives, the settlers on these tracts (and who had purchased them from the chiefs) were informed that they would be allowed to sit still 'on payment of a small fee by way of acknowledgment.' This, like other measures, was scouted: the settlers had no fear of an armed force to compel them to immediate subjection, and so appealed to the Land Commission, knowing well that British justice would not despoil them of lands which they had already honestly paid for. 'The infatuated government,' says Mr Brown, 'proceeded, and gave deeper and deeper offence to the colonists, each measure being more destructive than another, until it arrived at the climax of unpopularity; having excited the derision and hatred of every individual in the country, north, south, east, and west. Even the missionaries could not conceal their displeasure, as their countenance to the measures of government had at first been purchased by promises which were never fulfilled. In addition to these indirect and perhaps unintentional causes of injury to the natives, the government is chargeable with practising deception in many ways

towards them. For instance, from the importunity of the natives, promises to purchase land were freely made—but to be broken; and, worse than all, payments for land actually purchased were not duly made; while the repeated but fruitless applications for it, produced in many cases the greatest exasperation.' Over and above all these causes of dissatisfaction, customs' regulations were enforced at the ports, and taxes imposed on tobacco and other articles. To a people who had never been accustomed to imposts of this nature, and into whose harbours vessels of every nation had hitherto entered without any restriction, these exactions were especially offensive, and led, as will be seen, to open resistance. These remarks apply more particularly to the northern parts of the island, where government had planted Auckland and other townships; but the same spirit of discontent was rapidly spreading along Cook's Strait, where the New Zealand Company had already established Wellington, Nelson, and New Plymouth.

The ultimate results of the government procedure were frequent quarrels between the settlers and natives, a diminution of trade and enterprise, the massacre of Wairau, the insurrection headed by Heki at the Bay of Islands—and so on through a series of defiances and obstructions, till Mr Shortland was superseded by Captain Fitzroy, who arrived in December 1843. The hopes excited by this change caused a temporary cessation of hostilities; for both natives and settlers looked forward to some speedy and effective remedy. After a few weeks, however, their patience became completely exhausted, and the new governor was compelled to waive the right of pre-emption, and to allow the natives to dispose of their land as they thought proper, the purchaser merely paying a fee of ten shillings per acre to government. This tended for a short time to allay the hostility of those whose lands lay in the vicinity of the townships, as such met with ready purchasers even at that rate; but to the inland chiefs it was no advantage. The consequence was, that the old spirit of hostility returned, burning all the fiercer that many of the settlers made common cause with the aborigines. This alliance was effective; for on the 10th of October 1844, all restrictions on the sale of lands were removed—the government retaining its superiority and right to grant titles, by exacting payment of only one penny per acre. Lands, therefore, can now be purchased for whatever sum the natives will agree to take, in any district, and at whatever time parties choose to agree. In addition to this, all the ports in the islands were declared free, customs in every shape were abolished, the distillation prohibition removed, and instead of indirect taxation for the purposes of the local government, a property rate of L.1 per cent. was imposed. All these measures were popular in the highest degree, and infused new life and vigour into the infant colony. 'In the course of a few weeks, the feelings of both native and European were completely changed, and the bustle and activity of business took the place of languor and despair: the foundation of the prosperity of the colony of New Zealand may be said to have been then laid.' Reverting to the aborigines, it is gratifying to learn that, notwithstanding the continued mismanagement of affairs, they were fast acquiring the manners and habits of the Europeans; were generally adopting their dress, their style of living, their system of trade and modes of agriculture; and everywhere showed the greatest anxiety to possess sheep, cows, bullocks, horses, and ploughs. The women, too, were imitating those little domestic arts peculiar to the British housewife; and even shops and hotels in English fashion had been opened by natives. Another important index to their advancement was the desire they manifested to be near the townships; some of the chiefs actually taking up their residence within the capital.

Such is the substance of Mr Brown's statements respecting New Zealand, as derived from his personal experiences, from the commencement of the colony in 1840, till the beginning of the present year, at which

time he sailed for England. Since then, accounts have arrived of the destruction of the township of Kororika by the natives, the loss of many lives, and damage to the amount of sixty or seventy thousand pounds. This calamity also our author places to the account of the Hobson-Shortland infatuation, considering it as the offspring of that discontent which was first engendered by the land questions and commercial restrictions. He seems to entertain no fear for future aggressions, if the authorities observe a mild but firm procedure; for the character of the natives is altogether opposed to the supposition of large combinations against the whites, with a view to their expulsion from the country. On the contrary, they rather court the settler's presence, and are ever ready to trade with him, knowing well that their own comforts are bound up with those of the colonists. 'It is now sufficiently obvious, however, that a large body of troops are indispensably necessary for the defence of the settlers, and to preserve order; and if the power of the troops shall be confined exclusively to these objects, there can be little doubt of this being easily attained. But if, on the contrary, that power shall be employed to uphold injustice, or to coerce the natives out of their rights, there will be no peace or personal security, and the natives will combine together, and if unable to expel their oppressors, they will at least effectually prevent the colonisation of the country. In particular, this result will inevitably happen if any interference with, or restrictions upon, the free sale of their lands be again attempted, whether in the form of an open prohibition or hindrance of sale, or by the equally unjust but more deceitful scheme of taxing their lands. *Absolute free trade in land has now become indispensable to preserve peace with the natives; and New Zealand upon other terms is not worth having.*

Supposing such a course were followed as is here shadowed out, Mr Brown entertains no doubts of the co-operation and amalgamation of the aborigines—an amalgamation which, in his estimation, would be greatly facilitated by the adoption of such measures as the following:—1. An efficient protector's establishment, including sub-protectors, at every important station; for though there is at present an establishment under this name, its sole use, previous to Captain Fitzroy's arrival, was 'to make land purchases for the smallest sums for government, varying, it is believed, from threepence to sixpence per acre, and to cajole the natives into a belief of our good intentions towards them, without making any effort towards their real improvement.' 2. The establishment of a gazette, to be published both in English and Maori, for the purpose of affording information to the natives of the intentions of government, and also to elicit from them information respecting land, their titles, disputes, and other matters of public interest. 3. The making of roads by native labour, under the inspection of government. 4. Stimulating the aborigines, by means of public awards, to industrial pursuits, such as agriculture after the European mode, stock-rearing, flax-growing, and the like. 5. The encouragement, by similar means, of the adoption of our dress, houses, style of living, &c. 6. The establishment of schools, and the adoption in these, as well as in churches, of the English language exclusively. 7. No favour by government to any particular religious sect, but equal protection to all. These and other steps Mr Brown believes would essentially contribute to the improvement of the natives, and would assist in amalgamating them more speedily with the settlers. Though not attaching the same value to some of these suggestions which the author apparently does, we may yet believe that their adoption could not fail to affect materially the character and conduct of the susceptible New Zealander.

Looking upon New Zealand, therefore, as one of our colonies, almost everything has yet to be done by the British government. The natives require to be dealt with honestly and firmly—honestly as regards the disposal of their lands, and firmly as concerns the fulfil-

ment of their bargains. To 'protect' them, as was done between 1840 and 1844, would be to retain them as savages; to befriend them in deed, is to instruct them in the arts and accomplishments of civilised life. Respecting the immigrants, immunity from further aggressions must be afforded them: numerous land-disputes have to be decided, and compensation made for losses already sustained. They do not wish large grants of money from the Home Treasury; all that they demand is, 'the assurance that the funds raised within the colony be expended judiciously and economically, for the purposes of the colony.' Such a course, coupled with free trade in all its purity, would, according to Mr Brown, render New Zealand one of the most eligible fields for British emigration, inasmuch as the country is neither exclusively agricultural, pastoral, nor commercial, but preserves a desirable relation to each of these resources; thus allowing of that variety of interests which is the foundation of all permanent prosperity.

### THE PRISON OF OPORTO.

THE Portuguese seem to be at present in much the same state of advancement, as respects prison discipline, that we were about a century ago. A coarse principle of vengeance is that which rules in the management of criminals; and whether the unhappy sufferers survive the pains of incarceration, or die under them, would appear to be a matter of indifference.

While on a visit to Oporto in 1844, I had an opportunity of witnessing the manner in which prisoners are treated in the common jail of that city. Not being in the habit of visiting such places, I should not now have entered this one, but for a circumstance which attracted my attention. In daily passing the prison, a large building of handsome architecture, I could not help noticing a very curious appearance. From the unglazed windows there were projected numerous long poles, to each of which was attached a string and bag, the whole being kept in pretty constant motion, accompanied with screams and wailing lamentations from the inmates. On looking up, wretched faces, sallow, and matted with long beards, were seen crowding against the gratings, and the urgent appeals made by them to the passers for food or money were among the most dismal sounds which had ever fallen upon my ear.

Interested as well as shocked, I resolved to visit this abode of misery. On consulting with some friends as to the best manner of gaining admission, all endeavoured to dissuade me from the attempt, assuring me that no one ever entered the place willingly, as the scenes I should there witness were dreadful, and the danger from infectious diseases great. A feeling, however, of something higher than curiosity induced me to persevere, and I succeeded in procuring an order from one of the magistrates. This was attended with some difficulty, as, at the period of my visit, one of those insurrections or revolutions with which the peninsula is almost annually visited, had just broken out, in consequence of which the town was under martial law, and many arrests were taking place. On proceeding to the prison, at each corner of which is placed a sentry, who challenges all who pass after sunset, I was admitted into a large hall, in which there was a strong guard of soldiers, and thence ascended a long flight of steps, at the top of which is an iron gate.

On showing the order the gate was opened, and I was requested to inscribe my name in a book, after which the jailer desired me to follow him, informing me it was the prisoners' dinner hour. I accordingly accompanied him and four assistants, and, after passing through a long vaulted passage, came to a hall about forty feet square, in the centre of which was an immense tin case containing the soup, and close to it a pile of loaves for the prisoners. I tasted the soup, which was made of beans and other vegetables, and a large proportion of oil, which I did not find unpalatable. In a little I followed my guide through another pas-



sage, and my attention was directed to a trap-door, on which the jailer gave three loud knocks with a heavy stick; and, being almost instantly responded to from below, the bolts were withdrawn, the door lifted up, and immediately first one and then another of the most miserable-looking creatures issued forth, each holding a ration can. Both were tall men, very thin, of sallow unhealthy complexion, long hair over their faces, and most repulsive melancholy expressions. Casting their eyes upward on mounting from below, they walked quickly to the soup can, held out their ration tin, and received from another under-jailer a piece of bread, and without a syllable having been uttered, returned to the trap-door and descended. The door was closed over them, the iron bars padlocked, and there they were to remain until rations were again distributed. I thought I had never seen such wretched-looking fellow-creatures; but I confess my sympathy in their fate was not increased, on being told that these two men were the executioners of the prison: having been condemned to death for murder, they had availed themselves of the option offered, either to suffer themselves, or to put others to death. One of them had been confined for thirteen, and the other for seven years, during which time they had lived in the same apartment.

We then proceeded to a trap-door in another passage, and, being desirous of seeing the room in which the prisoners were kept, I accompanied one of the jailers. After descending a long narrow winding staircase, nearly blocked up by prisoners anxious to get up for their rations, I found myself in a large high-vaulted apartment with windows without glass, and up the bars of which the jailers mounted, sounding each with a short piece of iron, to discover if any of them had been filed. There were eighty-one prisoners in the room, several of whom were deserters, young fellows in military costume; others were murderers and robbers. Some were still untried; others had long been sentenced to the galleys or death; all were huddled together, whether their crimes were great or small.

I could not help feeling I had got into strange company; but although a very melancholy, it was a very interesting scene, to be in the midst of so many human beings whose features betrayed the violent passions that had caused the perpetration of the bloody deeds which had brought them there. Among them were some handsome men, and the variety of dress had a singular and picturesque effect. Many of them were well clothed, others were in straw cloaks or sheepskins, and others had nothing but a shawl wherewith to cover themselves. Some had provided themselves with mattresses; but most of them had the bare floor for their couch. A very few were working as carpenters and weavers. All were very polite; and, on the whole, I found their quarters greatly superior to what I had been led to imagine. Owing to there being no glass in the windows, it must be extremely cold during the winter; but there is, consequently, a current of fresh air, which counteracts the close atmosphere and pestilential diseases which would otherwise inevitably arise.

I was greatly struck by the proof which even these lawless men exhibit of the necessity for a distinction of rank and power; for they invariably elect from among themselves a judge or chief, whom all must implicitly obey, and the one whom they had selected while I was there was a very tall gentlemanlike man, who had committed some half-dozen murders. On receiving permission, the whole, provided with ration cans, mounted the steps, ranged themselves in the hall, and one by one marched past the man dealing out the soup and the bread, and again immediately descended.

Some had complaints to make, and one man became violently excited, and gesticulated with an elegance and energy which would have called down rounds of applause had it been on the stage. Afterwards descended into another room, where there were about fifty men, and into another with the same number of women, many of whom had children with them, and to whom

the rations were served out in the same way as to the men. We then proceeded up another staircase, and entered various rooms occupied by those who could afford to pay for superior accommodation, many of them being gentlemen and tradesmen, who had been arrested in consequence of the existing insurrection. I had reason to believe that some of the prisoners were kept concealed from visitors, and on a small door being opened by the jailer, I entered (though at first held back by one of the assistants) a cell so dark, that at first I could see nothing; but shortly observed an object covered with a white cloth moving in one corner. This was no doubt a political prisoner; and, without a syllable being uttered, his rations were left with him, and the door closed. While waiting in the hall, a man, apparently a farmer, was brought in upon suspicion of being connected with the rebels, and underwent a most minute examination, in order to discover if he was the bearer of any treasonable papers; and so searching was this scrutiny, that his shoes were actually taken off, and the soles ripped open. Nothing suspicious was found; yet the jailer ordered one of the trap-doors to be raised and closed over this unfortunate man, who, unless he had some friend with influence or with money to bribe the officers or judges, would probably remain in prison for years; but even if condemned to death, he may have the execution deferred as long as money is 'judiciously' applied.

Within the last two or three years, the town and country police has been rendered so efficient, that murders or robberies are comparatively rare in the neighbourhood; and the prison is not nearly so full as formerly, when not unfrequently, owing to its crowded state, the wretched creatures became so excited and violent, that it was thought necessary to order the sentries to fire through the windows indiscriminately among them.

During the time of Don Miguel's usurpation, a time still spoken of with horror by the inhabitants of Oporto, the prison was crammed so full that it was represented to the governor of the town (the notorious Jelles Jourdao) that there was not space for more. 'Is it full to the ceiling?' he demanded. 'No.' 'Then,' added he, 'don't tell me that it is full.' At that dreadful period there was scarcely a respectable family in the town who had not relatives in this prison, and many of them were beheaded in the adjoining square. When Don Pedro entered Oporto, the doors of the jail were broken open, and all were liberated, with the exception of the jailer, whose skull was fractured by the mob as he tried to escape.

Since the period of my visit to this horrible place of confinement, the Portuguese legislature has had under consideration the state of the national prisons, and the establishment of penitentiaries; but I have not heard that any improvement has yet resulted from their deliberations.

#### FURNISHING A HOUSE.

All things are according to the ideas and feelings with which they are connected; and if, as old George Herbert says, dusting a room is an act of religious grace when it is done from a sense of religious duty, furnishing a house is a process of high enjoyment when it is the preparation for a home of happy love. The dwelling is hung all round with bright anticipations, and crowded with blissful thoughts, spoken by none, perhaps, but present to all. On this table, and by this snug fireside, will the cheerful winter breakfast go forward, when each is about to enter on the glad business of the day; and that sofa will be drawn out, and those curtains will be closed, when the intellectual pleasures of the evening, the rewards of the laborious day, begin. Those ground windows will stand open all the summer noon, and the flower-stands will be gay and fragrant; and the shaded parlour will be the cool retreat of the wearied husband when he comes in to rest from his professional toils. There will stand the books, destined to refresh and refine his higher tastes; and there the music with which

the wife will indulge him. Here will they first feel what it is to have a *home of their own*, where they will first enjoy the privacy of it, the security, the freedom, the consequence in the eyes of others, the sacredness in their own. Here they will first exercise the graces of hospitality, and the responsibility of control. Here will they feel that they have attained the great resting-place of their life—the resting-place of their individual lot, but only the starting-point of their activity. Such is the work of furnishing a house once in a lifetime. It may be a welcome task to the fine lady decking her drawing-room anew, to gratify her ambition, or divert her *ennui*; it may be a satisfactory labour to the elderly couple, settling themselves afresh, when their children are dispersed abroad, and it becomes necessary to discard the furniture that the boys have battered and spoiled; it may be a refined amusement to the selfish man of taste, wishing to prolong or recall the scenes of foreign travel; but to none is it the conscious delight that it is to young lovers and their sympathising friends, whether the scene be the two rooms of the hopeful young artisan, about to bring his bride home from service, or the palace of a nobleman, enriched with intellectual luxuries for the lady of his adoration, or the quiet abode of an unambitious professional man, whose aim is privacy and comfort.—*Deerbrook, by Miss Martineau.*

#### THE PAMPERO.

Amongst the most remarkable phenomena connected with the Pampas of South America, are those hurricane-like storms known by the name of *pamperos*. They occur in summer after a continuance of northern wind and of sultry weather. Before the setting in of the storm, clouds gather in the south-west, which soon assume a singularly dark and rolled or tufted appearance, like great bales of black cotton, and are continually altering their forms. They are followed by gusts of hot wind, blowing at intervals of about a minute. Then suddenly the storm, which apparently proceeds from the snow-capped summits of the Andes, rushes down with an indescribable violence, sweeps over the Pampas, and, ere it reaches the town of Buenos Ayres, often becomes a hurricane. The *pampero* is frequently accompanied by clouds of dust, collected from the parched-up soil, so dense as to change the brightest light in an instant, as it were, to the most intense darkness, so that people are unable to find their way. Instances have occurred at Buenos Ayres of persons bathing in the river being drowned ere they could find their way to the shore. These clouds are often attended by a heavy fall of rain, which, mingling with the dust as it pours down, forms literally a shower of mud. Sometimes the *pampero* is accompanied by the most terrific thunder and lightning, doing great damage, and frequently attended with loss of life. The shipping in the La Plata river always suffers greatly from a *pampero*, and the loss of property is considerable. The force of these storms must be immense, as it is able to remove heavy bodies to a great distance. Captain Fitzroy mentions that a small boat, before the setting in of the storm, had been hauled ashore just above water-mark, and fastened by a strong rope to a large stone; but after the storm it was found far from the beach, shattered to pieces, but still fast to the stone, which it had dragged along.—*Curiosities of Physical Geography.*

#### THE ELECTRIC EEL.

In no part of the world is the electric eel, or *gymnotus*, found in such numbers as in the numerous rivers which join the Orinoco in its middle course, and in that river itself. These animals resemble a common eel, except that they are rather thicker in proportion to their length. They are of a yellowish and livid colour, with a row of yellow spots on each side from head to tail. They are difficult to catch, on account of the great agility with which they hide themselves in the mud. The Indians take them in the following way. They force a herd of horses to go into shallow water, which they know to be frequented by these eels. The noise which the horses make with their feet, brings the eels out of their muddy retreat, and they immediately attack the horses, by pressing themselves beneath their bellies, and discharging on them their electric shocks. The frightened horses make efforts to get out of the water, but the Indians prevent them, and the eels repeat their discharges. Some of the horses, being stunned by these repeated strokes, fall down and are drowned; others evince all the signs of horror, and endeavour to escape, but are prevented by the Indians. At last the eels become ex-

hausted, in consequence of the repeated electric discharges, and are easily taken. The shock which these animals communicate is so severe, that it is impossible to hold them in the hand, or to tread on them. They can give a shock exactly similar to that of an electric battery, stunning fish through the medium of water, and, if they are small, killing them. This shock is evidently given by a voluntary act of the fish, for it is not always felt instantaneously on handling them; and the moment of the effort being made, can be distinguished by the corrugation of the skin and the changing of the colour.—*Wittich.*

#### SUPERSTITION RESPECTING THE BAY.

It was a superstition entertained both in ancient and modern times, that the lightning paid respect to the bay tree, and consequently its leaves were used as a charm against the electric stroke. Thus in an old English poem we find these lines—

As thunder nor fierce lightning harms the bay,  
So no extremity hath power on fame.

In a copy of complimentary verses to the memory of Ben Jonson, there is this allusion to the supposed protection which the bay conferred on its wearer—

I see that wreath which doth the wearer arm  
'Gainst the quick strokes of thunder, is no charms  
To keep off death's pale dart: for, Jonson, then  
Thou hadst been numbered still with living men;  
Time's scythe had feared thy lawrell to invade,  
Nor thee this subject of our sorrow made.

It is related of Tiberius the Roman emperor, that whenever the sky portended a storm, he placed a chaplet of laurel round his neck. A Dutch writer of the seventeenth century takes upon him to combat the notion; and in order to show its falsity, states that, only a few years previously, a laurel tree had been shattered by lightning in the neighbourhood of Rome. The iron crown of laurels upon the bust of Ariosto in the Benedictine church at Ferrara was melted by lightning, an incident which Childe Harold notices and comments on—

Nor was the ominous element unjust;  
For the true laurel wreath which glory weaves,  
Is of the tree no bolt of thunder cleaves.

#### NATURAL HISTORY.

The consequences of this pursuit, when not even carried to the length of a study, are self-evident, and the dny has happily passed away in which the votaries of nature were taunted with ridicule, and as addicted to childish fancies. There is a kind of freemasonry in the study or pursuit of natural history; it operates on our kindly affections, and in many instances opens the communication to the most pleasing acquaintances, which, from congeniality of disposition, ripen into the warmest friendships. Our walks cease to be solitary; something there is always to observe, something to note down, to verify or compare. The effect on the mind, too, is not one of its least advantages: we look round on the creation, and exclaim with Stillingfleet—

How wondrous is this scene! where all is formed  
With number, weight, and measure! all designed  
For some great end.

We admire with astonishment the Providence which has assigned to each thing its place, forming a harmonious whole, through such innumerable and inseparable links; and feel, with deep humility, how richly we are endowed, and how great is our debt of gratitude and praise to nature's God. From casual observance, in the first instance, we are led on to serious contemplation, and higher feelings are awakened, which operate most influentially on the mind and conduct. I have ever noticed as a sequence, that kindness of disposition, consideration for others, and a greater calmness of mind, become the portion of the admirer and observer of the works of Providence: he rises from the perusal of the book of nature a better man.—*E. P. Thompson.*

#### FASHION.

He submits to be seen through a microscope, who suffers himself to be caught in a fit of passion.—*Lawater.*

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